

1 **Simulating the formation of carbonaceous aerosol in a European**  
2 **Megacity (Paris) during the MEGAPOLI summer and winter**  
3 **campaigns**  
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44 **Abstract**

45 We use a three dimensional regional chemical transport model (PMCAMx) with high  
46 grid resolution and high resolution emissions ( $4 \times 4 \text{ km}^2$ ) over the Paris greater area to  
47 simulate the formation of carbonaceous aerosol during a summer (July 2009) and a winter  
48 (January/February 2010) period as part of the MEGAPOLI (Megacities: Emissions, urban,  
49 regional, and Global Atmospheric POLLution and climate effects, and Integrated tools for  
50 assessment and mitigation) campaigns. Model predictions of carbonaceous aerosol are  
51 compared against Aerodyne aerosol mass spectrometer and black carbon (BC) high time  
52 resolution measurements from three ground sites. PMCAMx predicts BC concentrations  
53 reasonably well reproducing the majority (70%) of the hourly data within a factor of two  
54 during both periods. The agreement for the summertime secondary organic aerosol (OA)  
55 concentrations is also encouraging (mean bias =  $0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) during a photochemically intense  
56 period. The model tends to underpredict the summertime primary OA concentrations in the  
57 Paris greater area (by approximately  $0.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) mainly due to missing primary OA  
58 emissions from cooking activities. The total cooking emissions are estimated to be  
59 approximately  $80 \text{ mg d}^{-1}$  per capita and have a distinct diurnal profile in which 50% of the  
60 daily cooking OA is emitted during lunch time (12:00 – 14:00 LT) and 20% during dinner  
61 time (20:00-22:00 LT). Results also show a large underestimation of secondary OA in the  
62 Paris greater area during wintertime (mean bias =  $-2.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) pointing towards a secondary  
63 OA formation process during low photochemical activity periods that is not simulated in the  
64 model.

## 65 **1 Introduction**

66       Megacities (cities with more than 10 million inhabitants) are major sources of gas and  
67 particulate pollutants affecting public health, regional ecosystems, and climate. Rapid  
68 urbanization requires efficient emission control strategies and cost-effective air quality  
69 management. One of the main challenges in the design of abatement strategies for large urban  
70 agglomerations is the quantification of the contributions of local and long-range pollutant  
71 transport as well as the identification of the emission areas affecting the receptor. Ambient  
72 fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) is one of the main targets of such pollution reduction  
73 strategies. Organic aerosol makes up a large part of PM<sub>2.5</sub> but despite its importance, it  
74 remains the least understood component of the atmospheric aerosol system. Understanding  
75 the formation and sources of organic aerosol in megacities is a critical step towards  
76 developing efficient mitigation strategies.

77       Intensive field measurement campaigns have been performed to characterize the  
78 chemical composition of particulate and gaseous pollutants in megacities such as New York  
79 (Sun et al., 2011), the Los Angeles basin (Hersey et al., 2011), Mexico City (Molina et al.,  
80 2010), London (Allan et al., 2010), Tokyo (Xing et al., 2011), and Beijing (Sun et al., 2010).  
81 In Europe comprehensive atmospheric measurements were recently conducted in the Paris  
82 metropolitan area as part of the MEGAPOLI project (Crippa et al., 2013a,b,c; Freutel et al.,  
83 2013; Freney et al., 2013). Freutel et al. (2013) analyzed aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS)  
84 measurements from 3 stationary sites in the Paris area during July 2009. They found that the  
85 origin of air masses had a large influence on secondary (oxygenated) organic aerosol (OOA)  
86 concentrations with elevated values (up to 7  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) observed during periods when the site  
87 was affected by transport from continental Europe and lower concentrations (1 - 3  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )  
88 when air masses were originating from the Atlantic. Crippa et al. (2013a) used positive

89 matrix factorization (PMF) to perform organic source apportionment during winter 2010 in  
90 Paris. They identified three dominant primary sources (traffic: 11–15% of OA, biomass  
91 burning: 13–15% and cooking up to 35% during meal hours). Oxygenated OA was found to  
92 contribute more than 50% to the total OA and included a highly oxidized factor and a less  
93 oxidized factor related to aged wood burning emissions. Crippa et al. (2013b) focused on  
94 secondary OA (SOA) during both winter and summer in Paris and showed that OOA (local  
95 semi-volatile OOA (SV-OOA) and regional low-volatility OOA (LV-OOA)) was significant  
96 during both seasons (24–50% of total OA), while contributions from photochemistry-driven  
97 OOA (daytime SV-OOA) (9% of total OA) and aged marine OA (13% of total OA) were also  
98 observed during summertime. A semivolatile nighttime OOA factor correlating with nitrate  
99 was also identified representing 2% of total OA during summer and 18% in winter. Freney et  
100 al. (2014) analyzed airborne AMS measurements during summer and found that OA  
101 increased with photochemical aging demonstrating that it is necessary to take into account a  
102 continental-scale geographical area (compared to a local/city-scale area) when assessing the  
103 formation of SOA from urban emissions.

104       Organic aerosol has hundreds of sources, both anthropogenic and natural, in both the  
105 particulate and gas phases, while it can undergo complex atmospheric chemical and physical  
106 processing (Hallquist et al., 2009). The description of all these emissions and processes in  
107 Chemical Transport Models (CTMs) is not a trivial task. Earlier modeling efforts for the  
108 megacity of Paris (Sciare et al., 2010) have assumed that primary OA (POA) is non-volatile  
109 and used a single-step oxidation SOA scheme thus underestimating SOA concentrations by a  
110 factor of three. Even larger errors were encountered when aged air masses with high SOA  
111 levels arrived at the observation site. More recently, models taking into account the  
112 semivolatile nature of POA (Robinson et al., 2007) have been applied over Paris. Couvidat et

113 al. (2013) applied the Polyphemus model, which incorporates a two-surrogate-species  
114 (hydrophilic/hydrophobic) SOA formation scheme taking into account POA volatility and  
115 chemical aging, during the MEGAPOLI July 2009 campaign. The model estimated a 30 -  
116 38% local contribution to OA at the city center and overpredicted morning OC  
117 concentrations. Zhang et al. (2013) implemented the volatility basis set (VBS) approach into  
118 the chemistry transport model CHIMERE and applied it to the greater Paris region for the  
119 summer MEGAPOLI campaign. Simulation of organic aerosol with the VBS approach  
120 showed the best correlation with measurements compared to other modeling approaches.  
121 They also showed that advection of SOA from outside Paris was mostly responsible for the  
122 highest OA concentration levels. Fountoukis et al. (2013) examined the role of horizontal  
123 grid resolution on the performance of the regional 3-D CTM PMCAMx over the Paris greater  
124 area during both summer and winter and concluded that the major reasons for the  
125 discrepancies between the model predictions and observations in both seasons are not due to  
126 the grid scale used, but to other problems (e.g., emissions and/or process description).  
127 Skyllakou et al. (2014), using the Particulate Matter Source Apportionment Technology  
128 (PSAT) together with PMCAMx, showed that approximately 50% of the predicted fresh POA  
129 originated from local sources and another 45% from areas 100–500 km away from the  
130 receptor region during summer in Paris. Furthermore they found that more than 45% of OOA  
131 was due to the oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) that were emitted 100 - 500  
132 km away from the center of Paris.

133       Although several uncertainties still exist in OA modeling (e.g. related to POA volatility,  
134 SOA yields, the aging parameterization), evaluation and improvement of emission  
135 inventories from megacities as well as from surrounding areas is of fundamental importance.  
136 Furthermore, the description of the subsequent aging of the emitted organic material and the

137 formation of OOA is critical in OA modeling. In this work we use the 3-D regional CTM  
138 PMCAMx with fine grid resolution to evaluate the OA and BC emission inventory in the  
139 megacity of Paris. We use an extensive set of factor analysis AMS data which allow a more  
140 in-depth evaluation of the formation and evolution of OA. We identify and quantify missing  
141 sources of OA during both seasons, explore possible emission and meteorological errors  
142 affecting the predicted BC concentrations and discuss missing or inadequate processes  
143 forming OA in the model.

144

## 145 **2 Model description**

146 PMCAMx (Tsimpidi et al., 2010; Fountoukis et al., 2011, 2014b) describes the  
147 processes of horizontal and vertical transport, gas-and aqueous-phase chemistry, aerosol  
148 dynamics and chemistry, and wet and dry deposition. It is based on the framework of the  
149 CAMx air quality model (Environ, 2003). An extended SAPRC99 mechanism (Environ,  
150 2003) is used in the gas-phase chemistry module. The OA treatment in PMCAMx is based on  
151 the Volatility Basis Set (VBS) approach (Donahue et al., 2006; 2009) for both primary and  
152 secondary organic species. Primary OA is assumed to be semivolatile with nine surrogate  
153 POA species used, corresponding to nine effective saturation concentrations ranging from  $10^2$   
154 to  $10^6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (at 298 K) in logarithmically spaced bins (Shrivastava et al., 2008). POA is  
155 simulated in the model as fresh (unoxidized) POA and oxidized POA from i) intermediate  
156 volatility organic compounds (IVOCs) and ii) semi-volatile organic compounds (SVOCs)  
157 (SOA-iv and SOA-sv, respectively). The IVOCs emissions are assumed to be proportional  
158 (by a factor of 1.5) to the emitted primary OA mass (Tsimpidi et al., 2010; Shrivastava et al.,  
159 2008). The SOA volatility basis-set approach (Lane et al., 2008) of the model includes four  
160 SOA species for each VOC with four volatility bins (1, 10, 100,  $1000 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ). Chemical

161 aging is modeled through gas-phase oxidation of OA vapors using a gas-phase OH reaction  
162 with a rate constant of  $1 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for SOA from anthropogenic VOCs (aSOA-v)  
163 and  $4 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ molec}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for SOA-sv and SOA-iv (Atkinson and Arey, 2003). Each  
164 reaction is assumed to decrease the volatility of the vapor material by one order of magnitude.  
165 More details about this version of the model can be found in Fountoukis et al. (2011; 2014b).

166 The parameterization of the biogenic SOA chemical aging in the VBS scheme in this  
167 work differs from that used by Zhang et al. (2013) in CHIMERE. In CHIMERE the biogenic  
168 SOA ages the same way as the anthropogenic SOA, while in our work these later generation  
169 reactions are assumed to lead to a zero net increase of the corresponding SOA because of a  
170 balance between the functionalization and fragmentation processes.

171

### 172 **3 Model application**

173 We simulate two periods (1 – 30 July 2009 and 10 January – 9 February 2010) during  
174 which intensive measurement campaigns were performed as part of MEGAPOLI. PMCAMx  
175 is used with a two-way nested grid structure which allows the model to run with coarse grid  
176 spacing over the regional domain of Europe, while within the same simulation, applying a  
177 fine grid nest over the Paris greater area (Fig. 1). The necessary meteorological inputs to the  
178 model were generated from the WRF (Weather Research and Forecasting) model (Skamarock  
179 et al., 2008) and include horizontal wind components, vertical diffusivity, temperature,  
180 pressure, water vapor, clouds and rainfall. WRF was driven by static geographical and  
181 dynamic meteorological data (near real-time and historical data generated by the Global  
182 Forecast System ( $1 \times 1^\circ$ )). 27 sigma-p layers up to 0.1 bars were used in the vertical  
183 dimension. Each layer of PMCAMx was aligned with the layers used in WRF. PMCAMx  
184 was set to perform simulations on a polar stereographic map projection with  $36 \times 36 \text{ km}^2$  grid

185 spacing over the European domain and a  $4 \times 4 \text{ km}^2$  resolution over Paris. The European  
186 modeling domain covers a  $5400 \times 5832 \text{ km}^2$  region while the Paris subdomain covers a total  
187 area of  $216 \times 180 \text{ km}^2$  with the Metropolitan area of Paris located centrally in the subdomain.  
188 Fourteen vertical layers are used extending up to 6 km in height with a surface layer depth of  
189 55 m. The dimensions of the modeling domain are the same for both the summer and winter  
190 simulations. The model interpolates the meteorological input from the parent to the nested  
191 grid while high resolution emissions are used in the Paris subdomain. Concentrations of  
192 species at the boundaries of the domain are based on measured average background  
193 concentrations in sites close to the boundaries of the domain (e.g. Zhang et al., 2007; Seinfeld  
194 and Pandis 2006). We have used the same boundary conditions as in Fountoukis et al. (2011).

195 Inventories of both biogenic and anthropogenic emissions were developed and consist  
196 of hourly gridded emissions of gases as well as primary particulate matter. A description of  
197 the European emission data can be found in Pouliot et al. (2012). These emissions were  
198 modified by nesting high resolution emissions with emission inventories for four megacities  
199 in the European coarser grid of  $36 \times 36 \text{ km}^2$ . More specifically, the base case emission data  
200 originate from the Netherlands Organization for Applied Scientific Research (TNO) and were  
201 compiled as part of the MEGAPOLI project. They were spatially distributed at a resolution of  
202  $1/8^\circ \times 1/16^\circ$  (longitude  $\times$  latitude). Furthermore, based on the TNO inventory, bottom-up  
203 emission data were used for four European megacities (Paris, London, Rhine-Ruhr and Po  
204 Valley). A description of the procedure for the nesting, comparison and origin of the different  
205 emission inventories is given in Kuenen et al. (2010) and Denier van der Gon et al. (2011).

206 The Paris emissions that form the core of the high resolution inventory for the domain  
207 used in this study originate from local authorities responsible for city emissions inventories  
208 and air quality (Airparif, 2010). A summary of total mass emission rates for the Paris greater



209 area is given in Table 1. The largest source of primary OA in the wintertime emission  
210 inventory in Paris is residential (wood and fossil fuel) combustion, contributing 80% to the  
211 total anthropogenic OA emissions while during summer the traffic-related sector dominates  
212 with 35% contribution (Table S1). During winter the traffic sector contributes approximately  
213 40% to the total BC emissions in the Paris subdomain. This is more than a factor of two  
214 higher than the European average contribution and is due to the dense population in this area.  
215 The residential combustion sector contributes approximately 45% to the wintertime BC  
216 emissions in the Paris area which is about the same as the European average indicating low  
217 emissions per inhabitant in the Paris greater area for this specific source sector.

218 The chemical speciation of the volatile organic compounds is based on the speciation  
219 approach proposed by Visschedijk et al. (2007). Biogenic emissions were estimated using  
220 three distinct inventories. Plant canopy gridded emissions were estimated by utilizing the  
221 MEGAN (Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature) model (Guenther et al.,  
222 2006). MEGAN inputs are meteorological parameters estimated by the WRF model, the leaf  
223 area index and a set of emission factors for various chemical species at standard conditions.  
224 Since a large portion of the domain is covered by sea, marine aerosol emissions are also  
225 included. These are based on a marine aerosol model (O'Dowd et al., 2008) that estimates  
226 mass fluxes for both accumulation and coarse mode including an organic fine mode aerosol  
227 fraction. Inputs of the specific marine model are the wind speed components calculated by  
228 WRF and the chlorophyll-a concentrations acquired using the GES-DISC Interactive Online  
229 Visualization ANd aNalysis Infrastructure (GIOVANNI) as part of the NASA's Goddard  
230 Earth Sciences (GES) Data and Information Services Center (DISC). Finally wildfire  
231 emissions are also included (Sofiev et al., 2009).

232

## 233 **4 Measurements**

234 Two intensive field campaigns were performed as part of the MEGAPOLI project  
235 (megapoli.dmi.dk/index.html) during summer (July 2009) and winter (January/February  
236 2010) in the Paris area including AMS measurements of fine particulate matter from three  
237 ground sites (Beekmann et al., 2014). The Laboratoire d'Hygiène de la Ville de Paris (LHVP;  
238 Paris, 13<sup>th</sup> district; 48.827 N, 2.358 E) monitoring station is in the center of the city and is  
239 representative of Paris urban background air pollution (Sciare et al., 2010; Favez et al., 2007).  
240 SIRTA (Site Instrumental de Recherche par Télédétection Atmosphérique) is located in  
241 Palaiseau (48.714 N, 2.203 E), 20 km south-west of the city center and is characteristic of a  
242 suburban environment (Haefelin et al., 2005). The GOLF (GOLF Poudrière) site (48.934 N,  
243 2.547 E) is located approximately 20 km to the north east of the city center and is also  
244 suburban influenced by local (medium) traffic. High-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass  
245 spectrometers (HR-ToF-AMS) (DeCarlo et al., 2006) were used at both the SIRTA and  
246 LHVP sites, while a compact ToF-AMS (C-ToF-AMS) (Drewnick et al., 2005) was deployed  
247 at GOLF. AMS OA measurements were analyzed by factor analysis (Crippa et al., 2013b)  
248 using the multi-linear engine (ME-2) algorithm (Paatero, 1999; Canonaco et al., 2013), the  
249 PMF2 algorithm (Freutel et al., 2013) and the PET toolkit of Ulbrich et al. (2009) (Crippa et  
250 al., 2013a,c). The factor analysis data used in this work are taken from Crippa et al. (2013b)  
251 for LHVP, from Crippa et al. (2013c) for SIRTA and from Freutel et al. (2013) for the GOLF  
252 site during the summer period while during winter all the data are taken from Crippa et al.  
253 (2013a). Table 2 shows the various OA components identified by the PMF analysis in each  
254 site and season. During the winter campaign factor analysis identified two primary OA  
255 components (hydrocarbon-like organic aerosol (HOA) and biomass burning OA (BBOA)) in  
256 GOLF with the addition of cooking-related organic aerosol (COA) component in LHVP and

257 SARTA. Two secondary components (low-volatility OOA related to wood burning emissions  
258 and a highly oxidized OOA factor) were identified in LHVP and GOLF and one OOA  
259 component in SARTA. During summertime two primary OA components (COA and HOA)  
260 were identified in LHVP and SARTA and one component (HOA) at GOLF. Finally, one OOA  
261 component was identified in GOLF, while three (marine-related OA, (MOA), low-volatility  
262 oxygenated OA (LV-OOA) and semi-volatile oxygenated OA (SV-OOA)) were identified at  
263 SARTA and LHVP. BC was measured using a multi-angle absorption photometer (MAAP) in  
264 LHVP and GOLF and an Aethalometer in SARTA (Freutel et al., 2013). The measurement  
265 uncertainty for the aethalometer and MAAP was 30% and 10%, respectively (Freutel et al.,  
266 2013).

267

## 268 **5 Results and discussion**

### 269 **5.1 Model predictions over the Paris greater area**

270 Figure 2 shows the predicted average ground-level concentrations of fine fresh primary  
271 OA, secondary OA and BC in the greater Paris area during July 2009 and January/February  
272 2010. Overall, carbonaceous aerosol is predicted to account for 36% of total dry PM<sub>1</sub> mass  
273 concentration at ground level averaged over the Paris greater area domain during summer,  
274 followed by nitrate (20%), sulfate (16%) and ammonium (12%) with the remaining 16%  
275 comprised of crustal material, sea-salt and metal oxides. During the winter period the model  
276 predicts a higher contribution of carbonaceous aerosol (41%) and lower contributions for the  
277 secondary species: sulfate (12%), nitrate (12%) and ammonium (11%). Primary OA and BC  
278 are predicted to have higher levels in the city center while their concentrations decrease in the  
279 Parisian suburbs. The use of high resolution in both the emissions and grid simulation results  
280 in larger spatial concentration gradients compared to the resolution of 36 × 36 km<sup>2</sup> used by

281 Fountoukis et al. (2013). During the winter period the model predicts much higher  
282 concentrations for both POA and BC compared to summer. Based on the PSAT results, the  
283 two largest sources of primary carbonaceous aerosol are the traffic-related sector and the  
284 residential (fuel and wood) combustion processes. The traffic source sector dominates in the  
285 contribution of the OA and BC emissions during summer while during wintertime the  
286 residential combustion is the largest contributor.

287 Secondary OA concentrations show a regional character in their geographical  
288 distribution during both seasons with higher concentrations predicted during summer due to  
289 stronger photochemical activity. A west to east gradient is predicted during summer  
290 following the evolution of photochemistry. OOA is predicted to account for approximately  
291 90% of PM<sub>1</sub> OA at ground level over the Paris greater area (domain-average) during summer  
292 and 50% during winter..

293

## 294 **5.2 Primary organic aerosol levels and sources**

295 The prediction skill metrics of PMCAMx against factor-analysis AMS data for total  
296 POA concentrations from all three stations in the Paris greater area are summarized in Table  
297 3. Figure 3 shows an overall comparison of modeled versus observed values for both seasons.  
298 Primary OA in the model is the OA that is emitted in the particulate phase and has not  
299 undergone any chemical processing. The AMS total POA component in this comparison is  
300 the sum of HOA and COA during summer with the addition of BBOA during wintertime.  
301 During the summer period the model underpredicts total POA concentrations at all sites by,  
302 on average, 0.8  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . Overall, only 15% of the hourly data from all sites (1700 data points  
303 in total) are predicted within a factor of two. At LHVP the agreement is slightly better but  
304 still poor, with 30% of the data predicted within a factor of two and a fractional error of 0.9.

305 The day-to-day variability of modeled and observed concentrations in Paris center is shown  
306 in Fig. S1 in the supplement. The daily-average total POA concentration is systematically  
307 underpredicted throughout most of the simulated days.

308 Factor analysis of the AMS data from downtown Paris showed that a major part (more  
309 than 70%) of observed total POA concentrations originated from cooking activities ( $0.5 \mu\text{g}$   
310  $\text{m}^{-3}$  on average) while only another  $0.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  was attributed to HOA from traffic-related  
311 sources (Crippa et al., 2013b). Emissions from cooking sources are not included in the  
312 baseline emission inventories that are used in this work (Denier van der Gon et al., 2011).  
313 Therefore any POA concentrations that the model predicts during the summer period are  
314 mainly primary OA from traffic-related sources. This is further explored in Section 5.5.

315 During summer the model predicts low concentrations of vehicular POA in Paris,  
316 ranging on average between  $0.2$  and  $0.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , in agreement with the observations (Fig. S2).  
317 There is little bias (FBIAS=0.1) and the mean error is  $0.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (Table S2). In SIRTA the  
318 predicted average diurnal profile compares well with the observations capturing the morning  
319 peak at 8 am. The nocturnal bias in SIRTA (at 10 pm) is rather episodic with two days (4 and  
320 11 July) exhibiting a large vehicular-POA underprediction (by more than a factor of 5).  
321 Interestingly, observations show no clear morning peak at the city center. The model,  
322 however, predicts a distinct diurnal profile, overpredicting vehicular POA concentrations at  
323 LHVP during the morning rush hours. This overprediction of POA-traffic concentrations  
324 could be related to emissions (e.g. emission rate errors, errors in the diurnal cycle of  
325 emissions, missing sources of total POA emissions, etc.), errors in the geographical  
326 distribution of emissions in the high resolution domain (Fountoukis et al., 2013) or could also  
327 be affected by errors in the meteorology. The source apportionment method can also induce

328 errors. As HOA concentrations are quite low, the HOA fraction estimated by the statistical  
329 model has large uncertainty (30-50%).

330 Meteorological parameters used as input to PMCAMx (temperature, relative humidity  
331 and wind velocity) were compared against measurements available at SIRTAs (Fig. S3). In  
332 general, the WRF calculated meteorological fields are consistent with the measurements.  
333 Temperature is well reproduced with a mean bias of  $-0.7\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ . There are a few days where  
334 WRF underpredicts the maximum daily observed temperature by  $2\text{-}4\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  which could  
335 theoretically result in an underestimation of POA evaporation and thus a small overprediction  
336 of POA. However, no correlation between the temperature errors and the POA or OOA bias  
337 was found. No systematic error is found in the wind velocity or relative humidity comparison  
338 (mean bias of  $0.2\text{ m s}^{-1}$  and  $-0.5\%$ , respectively).

339 During winter the agreement for total POA is better than in summer, with errors mostly  
340 due to scatter (mean error =  $1.4\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) but also a tendency towards underprediction (mean  
341 bias =  $-0.4\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) (Fig. S1). Factor analysis of the AMS data from the city center showed an  
342 average of  $1\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  from cooking sources,  $1\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  from biomass burning and  $0.7\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$   
343 from traffic (Crippa et al., 2013a). The model predicts an average of  $2.2\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  for total POA  
344 which includes both vehicular POA and BBOA but no COA concentrations. Source  
345 apportionment results from Paris (Skylakou et al., 2014) showed that approximately 70% of  
346 the modeled (PMCAMx) total POA concentration in Paris center is predicted to originate  
347 from biomass burning and 15% from traffic-related sources. This shows that the model  
348 underpredicts the concentrations of POA-traffic components during winter (Table S2) while  
349 the problem with the missing COA emissions still exists but is now a smaller fraction of the  
350 total POA. The comparison between the predicted BBOA concentrations from PSAT against  
351 the factor analysis BBOA (Fig. S4, Table S3) shows an overprediction in LHVP (mean bias =

352 0.3  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and underprediction at SIRTA (mean bias = -0.3  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) implying errors in the  
353 geographical distribution of residential wood burning emissions in the Paris greater area.

354

### 355 **5.3 Oxygenated organic aerosol**

356 Figure 4 shows the comparison of predicted OOA concentrations against the factor-  
357 analysis AMS data for both seasons with the statistics of the comparison summarized in  
358 Table 3. The modeled OOA is defined as the sum of aSOA-v, bSOA-v (SOA from biogenic  
359 VOCs), SOA-iv and SOA-sv. Contrary to POA, the comparison for OOA during the summer  
360 period is encouraging (Fig. S1). The model predicts an average of 1.5  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  of OOA at the  
361 three measurement sites without any significant concentration gradients between the city  
362 center (LHVP) and the suburban sites (Table 3) while a 1.4  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  average concentration was  
363 estimated by the factor analysis. A large fraction (54%) of the predicted OOA concentration  
364 in LHVP is bSOA-v followed by SOA-sv and SOA-iv (33%) and aSOA-v (13%). Most of the  
365 OOA hourly measurements are reproduced within a factor of two (80% in both LHVP and  
366 GOLF and 60% in SIRTA) highlighting the ability of the model to reproduce the major  
367 secondary OA transport and transformation processes during a photochemically intense  
368 period. This was also shown by Zhang et al. (2013) when using the VBS scheme as opposed  
369 to the single-step SOA formation mechanism in LHVP during summertime. However, in  
370 disagreement with this work, the VBS scheme assuming increasing biogenic SOA yields with  
371 chemical aging of Zhang et al. (2013) systematically overpredicts OOA concentrations in the  
372 city center (by up to a factor of two). PMCAMx reproduces the observed OOA  
373 concentrations in LHVP during summer with reasonable accuracy (1.7  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  compared to  
374 1.6  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  predicted by the model with a -0.05 fractional bias).

375 During the winter period however, the model performance is very different than in July.  
376 PMCAMx largely underpredicts OOA concentrations at all three sites with an overall mean  
377 bias of  $-2.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (Table 3). It is noteworthy though that the OOA levels estimated by the  
378 PMF analysis during the winter period are more than a factor of two higher than that of the  
379 summer period. PMCAMx on the other hand predicts that OOA during winter is 30-50%  
380 lower than during summer. Only 25% of the hourly data (2230 in total) are predicted within a  
381 factor of two. The model predicts less than  $1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  of OOA in the Paris greater area while  
382 the factor-analysis estimated a concentration of more than  $3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . The OOA  
383 underprediction is persistent throughout the simulation period (Fig. S5). However, there are  
384 certain days with large (a factor of 3-5) underestimation (24 and 27 January and 4 and 7  
385 February) and a couple of other days during which the model performance is somewhat  
386 reasonable at least during certain hours of the day (29 January and 3 February). A back-  
387 trajectory analysis (Fig. S6) shows that during the days with the larger underestimation, air  
388 masses originated from continental Europe, either within France or from the northeast  
389 (mostly Germany). while during the days with reasonable model performance the air masses  
390 were mostly clean coming from the Atlantic. Possible reasons for this underprediction  
391 include errors in meteorology, emission rate errors of SOA precursors and missing or  
392 inadequate processes forming OOA in the model. However, no significant errors in the  
393 wintertime meteorological input were found from the evaluation of the meteorological  
394 parameters (Fig. S3). Furthermore, PMCAMx was found to perform reasonably well for other  
395 PM components (e.g. BC) indicating that the meteorology is probably not the main reason for  
396 the OOA underprediction. Simulations with PSAT together with PMCAMx showed that  
397 approximately 80% of the predicted OOA during winter in Paris originated from long range  
398 transport from areas more than 500 km away from Paris. Compared to summer (45%), the



399 model simulates more contribution from long range secondary OA sources during winter,  
400 because the timescale for its production is longer due to the slower photochemical activity  
401 (Skylakou et al., 2014). Therefore any emission rate errors in OOA precursors, if true,  
402 should be present not only in the Paris greater area but also in the greater region of Europe. In  
403 fact recent studies (Bergstrom et al., 2012; Kostenidou et al., 2013; Fountoukis et al., 2014;  
404 Denier van der Gon et al., 2014) have pointed towards large uncertainties in the biomass  
405 burning emission estimates in many European areas. This could partly explain the wintertime  
406 underprediction of OOA in Paris. If BBOA emissions are significantly underestimated in  
407 European regions upwind of Paris, then the Parisian SOA-sv and SOA-iv concentrations  
408 formed in the model from BBOA would also be underestimated. From the factor analysis of  
409 Crippa et al., (2013b), an average of  $1.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  was estimated for the oxygenated BBOA  
410 (OBBOA) concentration in Paris, significantly higher compared to the OBBOA predictions  
411 of PSAT ( $0.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ). However, this can explain only part of the large underprediction of  
412 OOA ( $-2.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ). Some recent studies have supported the transformation of BBOA to OOA  
413 without the presence of sunlight (Bougiatioti et al., 2013; Crippa et al., 2013a,b). A process  
414 forming SOA (and involving high  $\text{NO}_x$  levels from polluted sites) that is not simulated in the  
415 model could explain the OOA underprediction in Paris. Furthermore, Fountoukis et al.  
416 (2014b) evaluated PMCAMx against OOA factor-analysis AMS measurements from several  
417 sites all over Europe (Fountoukis et al., 2014b) during a wintertime period (February/March  
418 2009) and an autumn period (September/October 2008) and showed good agreement with  
419 observations from both periods (mean bias =  $0.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  and  $-0.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  respectively).  
420 Contrary to the present study though, the measurement sites in Fountoukis et al. (2014b)  
421 study included only rural and remote areas, while the more than  $3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  of OOA observed in  
422 Paris is a lot higher than other wintertime measurements in Europe.

423 Other possible sources of uncertainty that are not explored here but have been  
424 investigated in past applications of PMCAMx include uncertainties in the aging scheme, the  
425 magnitude of IVOC emissions, aqueous secondary OA formation and others (Murphy et al.,  
426 2011, 2012; Tsimpidi et al., 2010). These studies have shown so far that the base-case OA  
427 scheme used in PMCAMx represents reasonably well the average atmospheric chemistry of  
428 OA.

429

#### 430 **5.4 Black Carbon**

431 More than 70% of the hourly summertime BC data are predicted within a factor of two  
432 from all three sites (Fig. 5). The model, in agreement with the measurements, predicts the  
433 largest BC concentrations in the city center and the lowest at the suburban site of SIRTA. The  
434 overall mean bias ( $0.05 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) shows encouraging agreement without any systematic errors.  
435 During the winter period, with the exception of SIRTA where only 12-hour data were  
436 available, the model performs similarly to the summer period with 68% of the data predicted  
437 within a factor of two (Fig. 5). A slightly higher overprediction is seen in LHVP (mean bias =  
438  $0.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) compared to the summer period (Fig. S1). Both the model and the observations  
439 show higher BC concentrations in GOLF than in the city center due to a strong influence of  
440 nearby traffic.

441 Figure 6 shows the average diurnal profile of predicted and observed BC  
442 concentrations. PMCAMx does a reasonable job in predicting the low concentrations  
443 (minima of the curves) of BC during both periods and in both the city center and the suburbs  
444 reproducing even the low levels of BC in SIRTA (down to  $0.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in the evening). The  
445 small overpredictions in LHVP during summer and in both LHVP and GOLF during winter  
446 are mostly during the morning peak and could be related to errors in the traffic emission

447 inventory, errors in the geographical distribution of emissions in the high resolution inventory  
448 (Fountoukis et al., 2013) or to an underestimation of the mixing height by the model.  
449 Boundary layer height observations were only available in the SIRTA site.

450 A timeseries analysis of BC concentrations at SIRTA showed that the model  
451 overpredicted the morning peak BC concentrations by more than a factor of two on July 13,  
452 21 and 29. On July 13 the model-simulated mixing height is within 10% of the observed  
453 values while on the other two days the model underestimated the mixing height (up to 1200  
454 m for an observed mixing height of about 3000 m during the day). It is difficult to quantify  
455 the extent of the error this model underestimation would induce to BC concentrations since  
456 the mixing height observations are also uncertain. Hodzic et al. (2009) reported a positive  
457 bias of 300–1000 m in the mixing height diagnosed from LIDAR observations (used here), as  
458 compared to the one from radiosonde profiles. We corrected the BC concentrations in the  
459 Paris city center for the estimated 20% average underprediction of the mixing height during  
460 the summer. This slightly improved model performance (MB was reduced from  $0.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  to  
461  $-0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) showing that the mixing height underestimation could partly explain the BC  
462 discrepancy. However this is a rather crude correction since a large part (40%) of the city's  
463 BC is transported from outside the city (Skylakou et al., 2014). The model underpredicts the  
464 morning rise of the boundary layer during both summer and winter so this could also explain  
465 part of the BC underprediction in the morning (Fig. S7). Overall, the model predicts, in  
466 agreement with the measurements, surprisingly low concentrations of BC for a megacity of  
467 10.5 million inhabitants (Beekmann et al., 2015).

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## 471 **5.5 Estimation of cooking OA emissions**

472           Based on the comparison with the factor-analysis AMS data for COA (Section 5.2) a  
473 sensitivity simulation was run in which emissions of primary OA were increased by a factor  
474 of 3 during summer and 1.5 during winter to roughly account for the missing cooking  
475 emissions. These emissions were geographically distributed in the Paris greater area  
476 following the pattern of the population density. It should be noted that since IVOC emissions  
477 are assumed to be proportional to the emitted primary OA mass, the addition of COA was  
478 accompanied by an increase of the IVOC emissions. The total OC emissions added were 5.3  
479 tons d<sup>-1</sup> for the summer and 5.1 tons d<sup>-1</sup> for the winter period, or approximately 80 mg d<sup>-1</sup> per  
480 capita during each period. A distinct diurnal emission profile was used taking into  
481 consideration that COA concentrations were characterized by a prominent diurnal pattern  
482 with peak values during meal times (Crippa et al., 2013b). A variation of day-to-day  
483 emissions was also considered with approximately 18.5% of total weekly COA emitted (per  
484 day) on weekend days and 12.5% on weekdays. Figure S8 shows the temporal profile of the  
485 added cooking emissions during the summer period. The wintertime temporal profile used  
486 slightly differs from the summertime one, since these are based on the observed diurnal  
487 patterns of COA concentrations. As expected, PMCAMx predictions for total POA  
488 concentrations are much closer to observations when COA emissions are included in the  
489 inventory (Fig. 7, Table 4). The average summertime predicted total POA is increased to 0.7  
490  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  and the fractional bias drops from -0.7 to 0.05 while the number of data predicted  
491 within a factor of two increases from 30% to 60%. In the other two sites the addition of COA  
492 considerably improves model predictions although a systematic underprediction still exists  
493 (MB = -0.2  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in SIRTAs and -1  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in GOLF) which could be due to the simplified  
494 approach of distributing the COA emissions by population density in the greater area of Paris.

495 During the winter period the addition of COA results in a reduced model bias for total POA  
496 concentrations in Paris city center (FBIAS drops from -0.3 to -0.01). The model performance  
497 for OOA remains practically unchanged with the addition of COA during both seasons (Table  
498 4). Figure 8 shows the averaged diurnal profile of COA concentrations predicted and  
499 observed during both seasons in LHVP and SIRTA. In SIRTA the model predicts low  
500 concentrations ( $< 0.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) throughout the day during both seasons in agreement with  
501 observations. In the city center the two peaks observed during meal times are reproduced  
502 with reasonable accuracy. Interestingly, this agreement is achieved when 50% of the daily  
503 cooking emissions are emitted during lunch time (12:00 – 14:00 LT) and only 20% during  
504 dinner time (20:00-22:00 LT), although the nighttime maximum COA concentration is higher  
505 than the midday maximum (by a factor of two in summer). This is due to a strong vertical  
506 mixing during the summer days. During the winter period the addition of cooking OA  
507 emissions in the city center decreases the fractional bias for total POA concentrations in  
508 LHVP from -0.3 to -0.01 and in general significantly improves model predictions.

509 In a sensitivity test, we added cooking OA emissions in the entire domain assuming  
510 the same emission rate per person as in Paris. This is clearly a crude zeroth order  
511 approximation. Addition of cooking OA emissions to the inventory, leads to an increase of  
512 the total OA emissions by as much as a factor of 2-3 in some highly populated areas (Fig.  
513 S9). These additional European cooking OA emissions do affect OA levels in Paris.  
514 Assuming similar chemical aging parameters as for the transportation OA we estimated that  
515 these emissions could increase average OA in Paris by  $0.1-0.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  on average; a small but  
516 non-negligible contribution.

517

518

519 **6. Conclusions**

520           PMCAMx, a 3-D chemical transport model, was applied using both regional and  
521 urban domains to simulate the formation of carbonaceous aerosol during the MEGAPOLI  
522 summer and winter campaigns. A high grid resolution over the Paris greater area along with  
523 high resolution emissions ( $4 \times 4 \text{ km}^2$ ) was used to examine the role of sources and production  
524 mechanisms in the organic aerosol and BC concentrations.

525           PMCAMx predicts BC concentrations reasonably well during both periods and in  
526 both the city center and the suburbs (FBIAS = -0.1 in summer and 0.1 in winter) reproducing  
527 the majority (70%) of the hourly data within a factor of two. The largest source of  
528 summertime BC concentrations is traffic (70%) and of wintertime the residential combustion  
529 (45%). Almost 60% of the BC is predicted to originate from local sources during both  
530 summer and winter.

531           The agreement for the summertime secondary OA concentrations is also encouraging  
532 (mean bias =  $0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) highlighting the ability of the model to reproduce the major  
533 secondary OA transport and transformation processes during a photochemically intense  
534 period. The model predicts that during the summer a large fraction (54%) of the OOA  
535 concentration in the city center is comprised of SOA from biogenic VOCs followed by SOA  
536 from semi-volatile and intermediate-volatility VOCs (33%) while a smaller fraction (13%)  
537 consists of SOA from anthropogenic VOCs.

538           Wintertime simulations showed a surprisingly large underestimation of OOA in the  
539 Paris greater area (mean bias =  $-2.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) that has not been reported in any of the previous  
540 applications of the model in either the European or the United States domain. A process  
541 forming secondary OA (in a polluted environment with high  $\text{NO}_x$  concentrations and in the  
542 absence of light) that is not simulated in the model could partly explain this underprediction.

543           The model evaluation for primary OA concentrations revealed a major deficiency of  
544 the emission inventory, namely the missing primary organic aerosol emissions from cooking  
545 activities during both summer and winter. Based on the comparison with the factor-analysis  
546 AMS data for cooking OA, more than 5 tons d<sup>-1</sup> (or 80 mg d<sup>-1</sup> per capita) should be added in  
547 the emission inventory with a distinct diurnal profile in which 50% of the daily cooking  
548 emissions are emitted during lunch time (12:00 – 2:00 pm) and 20% during the dinner time  
549 (8:00-10:00 pm). This addition improved significantly the model performance for both  
550 summer and winter. This work strongly supports that much more attention should be paid to  
551 the OA emission inventories of megacities and more specifically to the cooking source sector.  
552 However, the remarkable diurnal variation of these emissions shows that more research is  
553 also needed towards a better understanding of which activities contribute to these emissions  
554 (e.g. meat grilling is one known important source of COA).

555           Focusing on ambient primary OA concentrations, the cooking source seems to be an  
556 attractive target for pollution reduction strategies since COA contributes 70% to total primary  
557 OA concentrations during summer. During winter both cooking (40%) and biomass burning  
558 (40%) are the two major contributors. Focusing on reducing BC concentrations, however, the  
559 traffic sector deserves the most attention during summer with the addition of residential  
560 combustion in winter.

561

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799 **Table 1.** Emission mass totals (in tons/month) for the Paris greater area as shown in Fig. 1.

Species	CO	NO	SO <sub>2</sub>	NH <sub>3</sub>	VOCs			Nitrate	Sulfate	Ammonium	BC	OC	Sodium	Chloride
					Isoprene	MT <sup>1</sup>	Other <sup>2</sup>							
							<u>Summer 2009</u>							
Anthropogenic	27307	10562	556	1877	-	-	12042	44	-	-	455	1058	12	-
Natural (land)	2247	204	-	-	2861	1435	2390	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Natural (Fires)	340	10	2	5	-	-	5	7	1	7	23	-	-	-
							<u>Winter 2010</u>							
Anthropogenic	54041	15440	5713	1999	-	-	17089	158	-	-	726	1892	32	-
Natural (land)	314	30	-	-	26	211	301	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

800 <sup>1</sup> MT: Monoterpene emissions801 <sup>2</sup> Other: Other VOCs excluding methane and methanol



802 **Table 2.** OA components identified by the PMF analysis in each site during the MEGAPOLI summer and winter campaigns  
 803

OA components	Summer	Winter
LHVP	HOA, COA	HOA, BBOA, COA
SIRTA	LV-OOA, SV-OOA, MOA	OOA1, OOA2
	HOA, COA	HOA, BBOA, COA
GOLF	LV-OOA, SV-OOA, MOA	OOA
	HOA	HOA, BBOA
	OOA	OOA1, OOA2

804 **Table 3.** Prediction skill metrics of PMCAMx against observed hourly data.

POA	Summer				Winter			
	LHVP	SIRTA	GOLF	Average	LHVP	SIRTA	GOLF	Average
Mean predicted ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	0.3	0.15	0.2	0.2	2.2	1.4	1.7	1.8
Mean observed ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	0.7	0.5	1.6	1	2.7	2.4	1.3	2.2
FERROR <sup>1</sup>	0.9	1	1.5	1.1	0.7	0.8	0.65	0.7
FBIAS <sup>2</sup>	-0.7	-0.9	-1.5	-1	-0.3	-0.6	0.2	-0.3
MAGE <sup>3</sup> ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	0.4	0.4	1.4	0.8	1.7	1.5	1.1	1.4
MB <sup>4</sup> ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	-0.3	-0.4	-1.4	-0.8	-0.5	-1	0.4	-0.4
OOA								
Mean predicted ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.5	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.9
Mean observed ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	1.7	1.2	1.5	1.4	3.2	3.3	3	3.2
FERROR	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.1
FBIAS	-0.05	0.2	0.02	0.05	-1.1	-1.1	-1	-1.1
MAGE ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	2.3	2.5	2.1	2.3
MB ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	-0.1	0.3	0.07	0.1	-2.3	-2.5	-2	-2.3
BC								
Mean predicted ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	1.6	0.6	1	1	1.9	1.8	2.3	2.1
Mean observed ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	1.3	0.65	1.1	1	1.4	0.9	2.1	1.8
FERROR	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.5	-	0.5	0.5
FBIAS	0.07	-0.2	-0.1	-0.1	0.2	-	0.02	0.1
MAGE ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	0.9	0.4	0.5	0.6	1	-	1.2	1.1
MB ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	0.3	-0.05	-0.05	0.05	0.5	-	0.2	0.3

805 <sup>1</sup>  $FERROR = 2/n \sum_{i=1}^n |P_i - O_i| / (P_i + O_i)$ , where  $P_i$  represents the model predicted value for data  
806 point  $i$ ,  $O_i$  is the corresponding observed value and  $n$  is the total number of data points.

807 <sup>2</sup>  $FBIAS = 2/n \sum_{i=1}^n (P_i - O_i) / (P_i + O_i)$

808 <sup>3</sup>  $MAGE = 1/n \sum_{i=1}^n |P_i - O_i|$

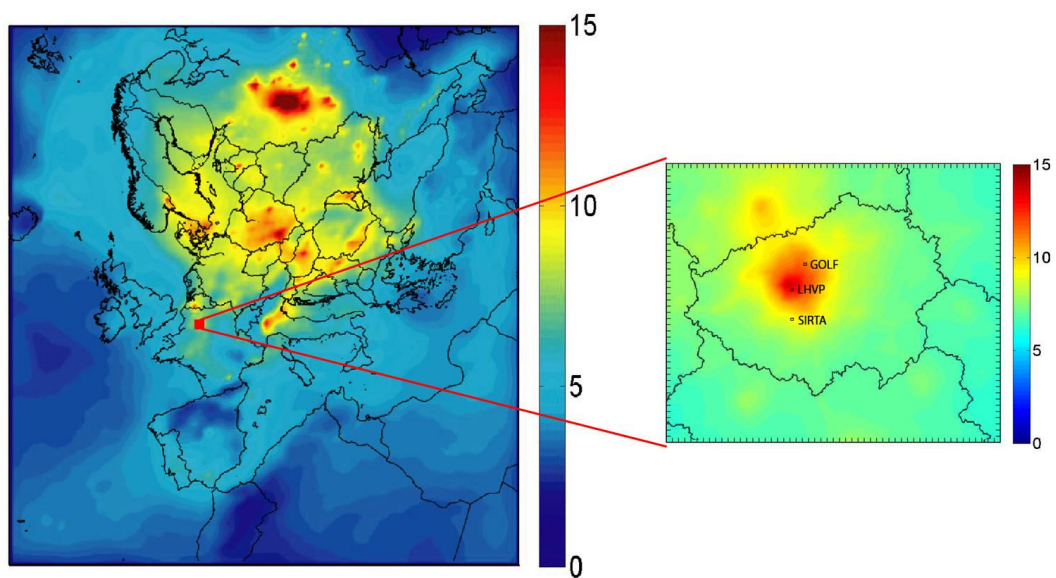
809 <sup>4</sup>  $MB = 1/n \sum_{i=1}^n (P_i - O_i)$

810 **Table 4.** Prediction skill metrics of PMCAMx with the addition of COA against observed  
 811 hourly data.

POA	Summer				Winter			
	LHVP	SIRTA	GOLF	Average	LHVP	SIRTA	GOLF	Average
Mean predicted ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	0.7	0.3	0.6	0.6	3	1.7	2	2.3
Mean observed ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	0.7	0.5	1.6	1	2.7	2.4	1.3	2.2
FERROR	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7
FBIAS	0.05	-0.5	-0.8	-0.5	-0.01	-0.5	0.3	-0.1
MAGE ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	0.4	0.3	1	0.6	2	1.5	1.3	1.6
MB ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	0.05	-0.2	-1	-0.4	0.5	-0.8	0.8	0.1
OOA								
Mean predicted ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.5	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8
Mean observed ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	1.7	1.2	1.5	1.4	3.2	3.3	3	3.2
FERROR	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.1
FBIAS	-0.05	0.1	0.02	0.05	-1.1	-1.1	-1	-1.1
MAGE ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	2.3	2.6	2.1	2.3
MB ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	-0.1	0.3	0.08	0.1	-2.3	-2.6	-2	-2.3

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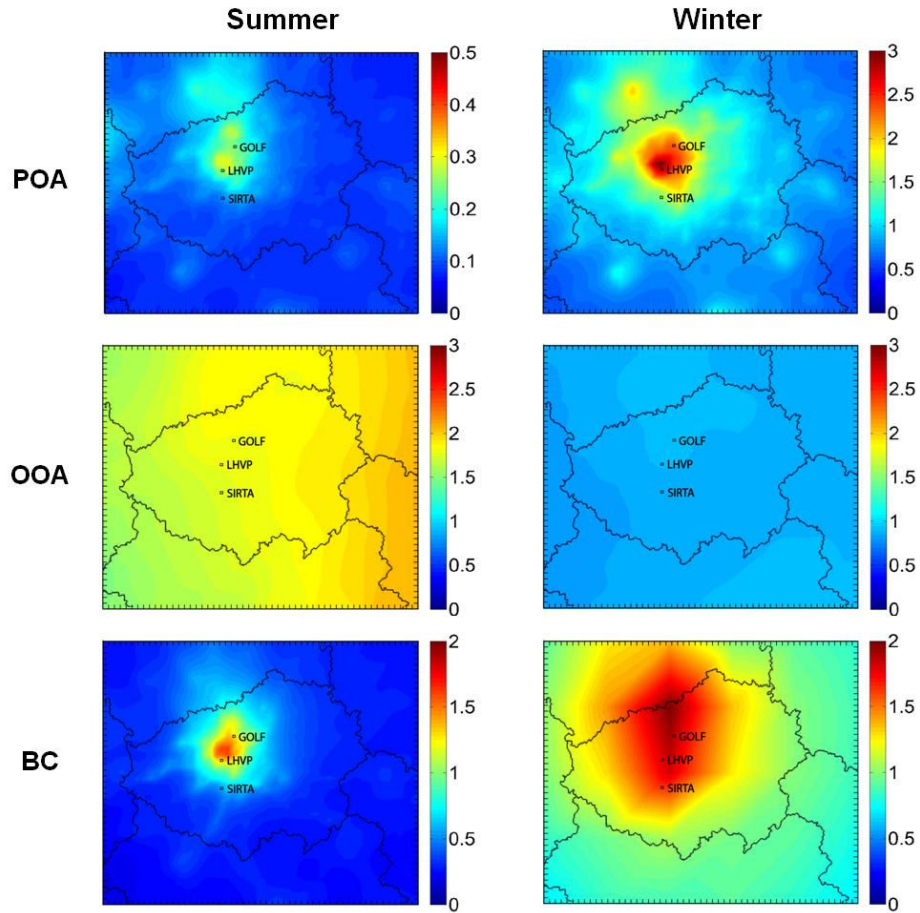


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815 **Figure 1.** Modeling domain of PMCAMx for Europe. Also shown are the three measurement  
816 stations in the nested  $4 \times 4 \text{ km}^2$  subdomain of Paris. Color coding shows the predicted average  
817 ground concentrations (in  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) of  $\text{PM}_{10}$  during winter 2010.

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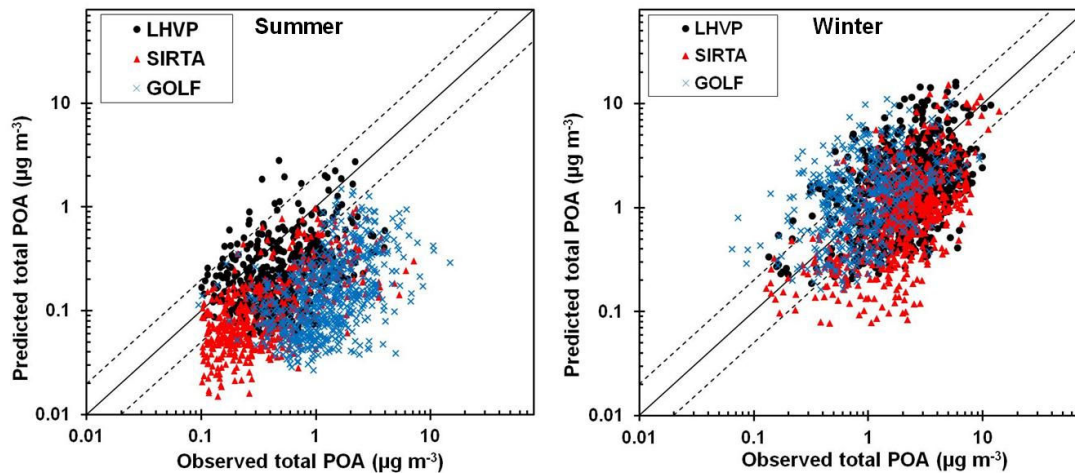
821 **Figure 2.** Predicted average ground concentrations (in  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) of fine fresh total POA, BC  
822 and OOA in the greater area of Paris during summer 2009 and winter 2010. Different scales  
823 are used.

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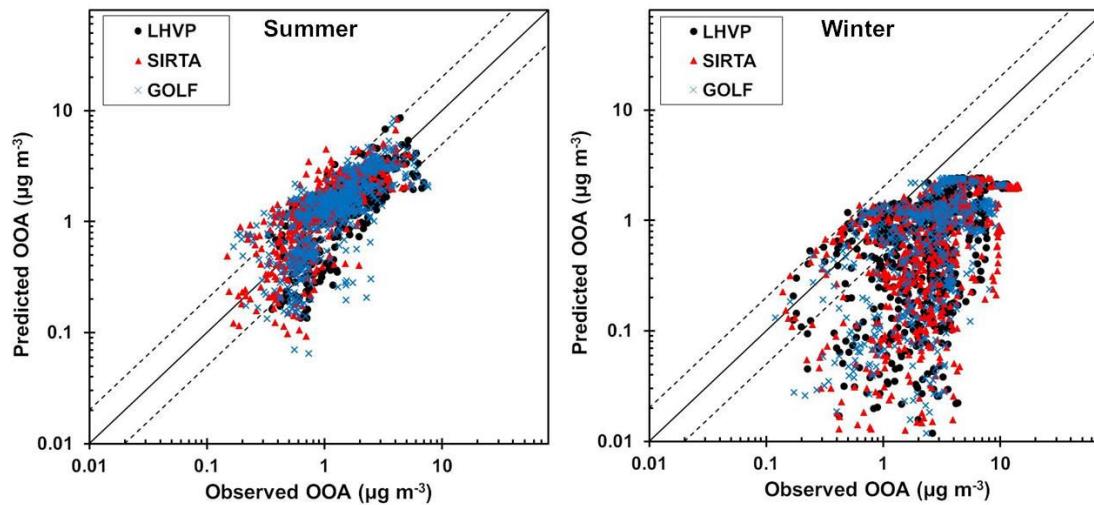
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828 **Figure 3.** Comparison of predicted vs. observed PM<sub>1</sub> total POA (µg m<sup>-3</sup>) from the three  
829 measurement stations during the MEGAPOLI summer and winter campaigns. Each point is  
830 an hourly average value. Also shown are the 1:1, 2:1 and 1:2 lines. Observed data represent  
831 AMS factor-analysis results.

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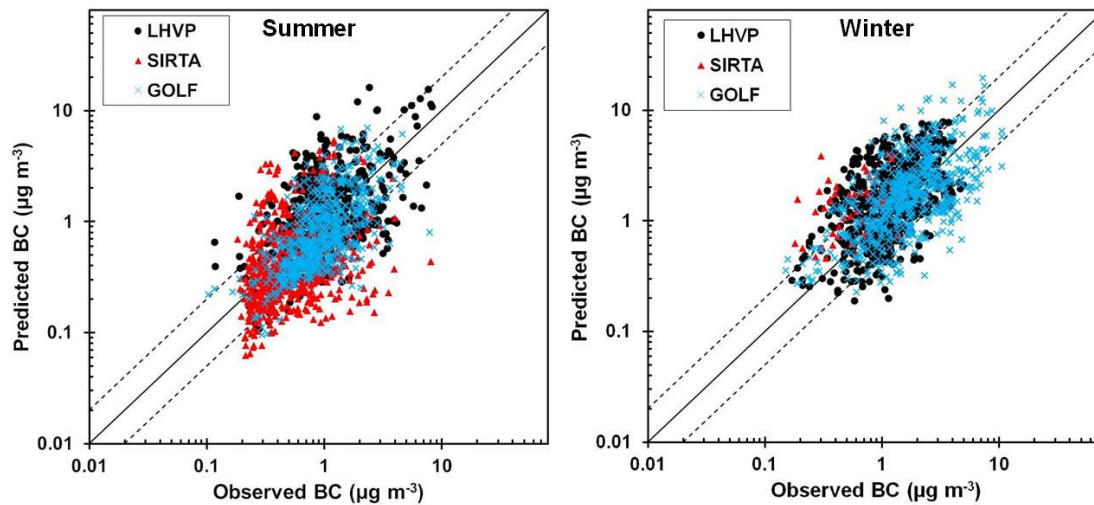
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836 **Figure 4.** Comparison of predicted vs. observed PM<sub>1</sub> OOA (µg m<sup>-3</sup>) from the three  
837 measurement stations during the MEGAPOLI summer and winter campaigns. Each point is  
838 an hourly average value. Also shown are the 1:1, 2:1 and 1:2 lines. Observed data represent  
839 AMS factor-analysis results.

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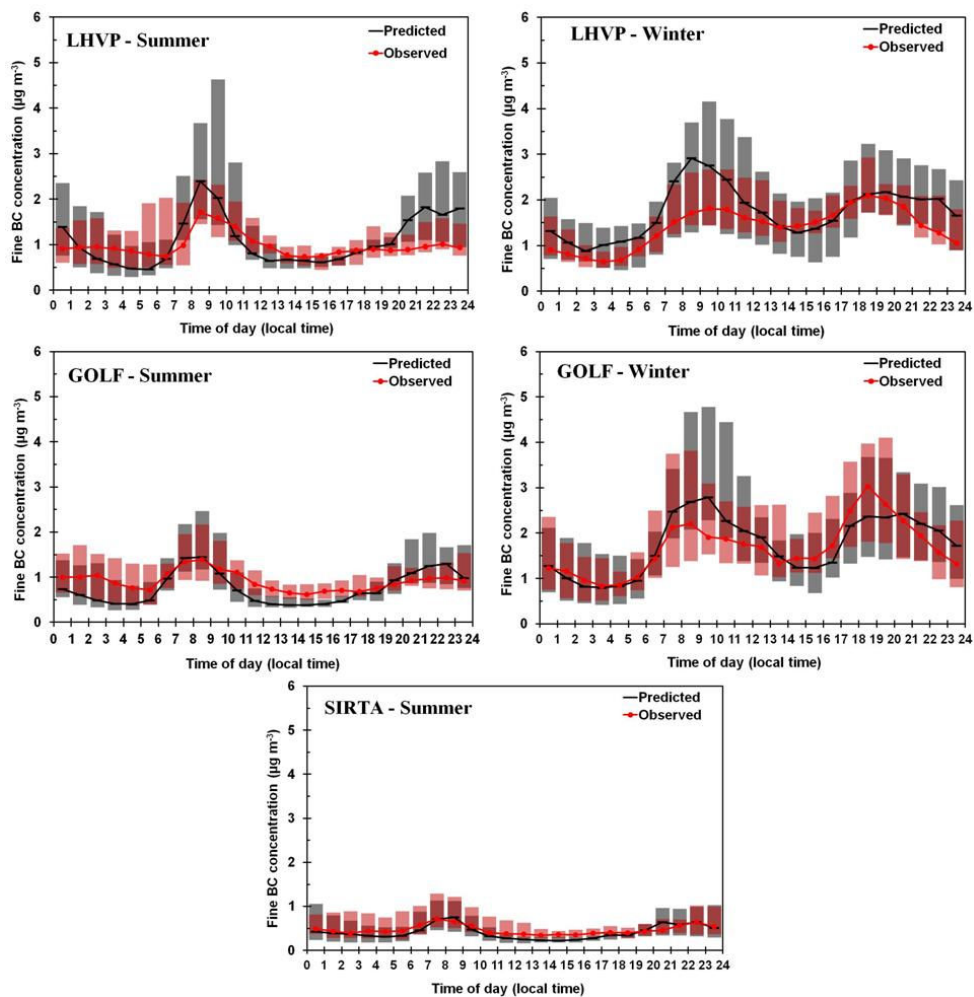
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844 **Figure 5.** Comparison of predicted vs. observed fine BC ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) from the three  
845 measurement stations during the MEGAPOLI summer and winter campaigns. Each point is  
846 an hourly average value with the exception of wintertime data at SIRTA where only 12-hour  
847 data were available. Also shown are the 1:1, 2:1 and 1:2 lines.

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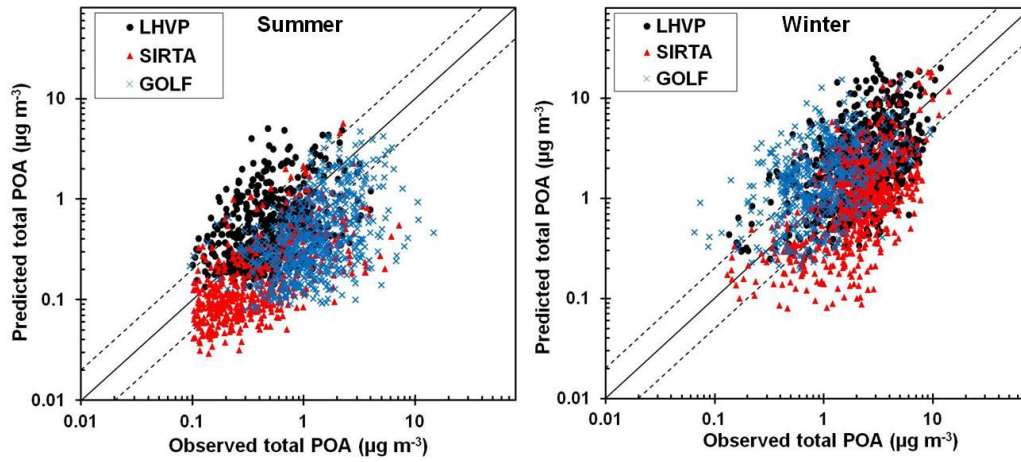


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851 **Figure 6.** Average diurnal profiles of fine BC concentrations from the three measurement  
 852 stations during the MEGAPOLI summer and winter campaigns. The shaded vertical bars  
 853 indicate the 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles (gray color represents the predicted and pink the  
 854 observed values).

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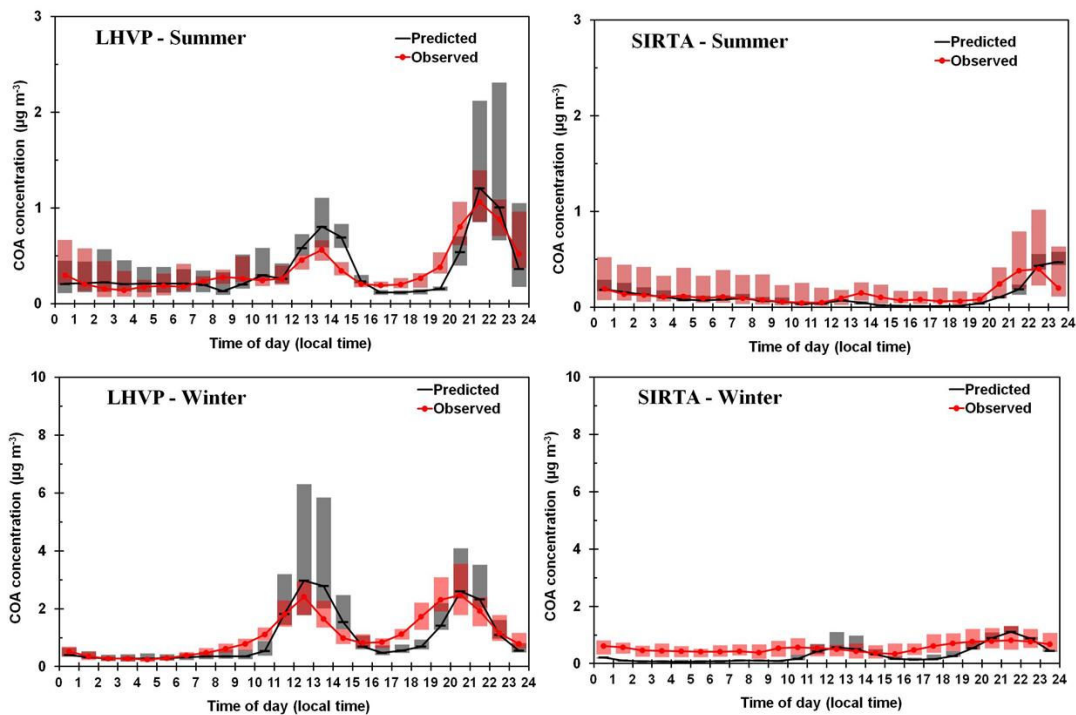
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858 **Figure 7.** Comparison of predicted vs. observed  $PM_1$  total POA ( $\mu g m^{-3}$ ), including the added  
859 COA emissions, from the three measurement stations during the MEGAPOLI summer and  
860 winter campaigns. Each point is an hourly average value. Also shown are the 1:1, 2:1 and 1:2  
861 lines. Observed data represent AMS factor-analysis results.

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866 **Figure 8.** Average diurnal profile of COA concentrations in LHVP and Sirta during the  
867 MEGAPOLI summer and winter campaigns. The shaded vertical bars indicate the 25<sup>th</sup> and  
868 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles (gray color represents the predicted and pink the observed values).

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